### Lecture 2: Exploration and Exploitation

Hado van Hasselt

Reinforcement learning, 2021



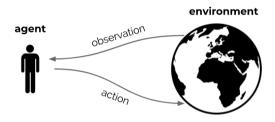
### Background

Recommended reading: Sutton & Barto 2018, Chapter 2

Further background material:
Bandit Algorithms, Lattimore & Szepesvári, 2020
Finite-time analysis of the multiarmed bandit problem, Auer, Cesa-Bianchi, Fischer, 2002



## Recap



- ▶ Reinforcement learning is the science of learning to make decisions
- Agents can learn a policy, value function and/or a model
- ► The general problem involves taking into account time and consequences
- ▶ Decisions affect the **reward**, the **agent state**, and **environment state**
- ► Learning is active: decisions impact data



### This Lecture

In this lecture, we simplify the setting

- ► The environment is assumed to have only a **single state**
- actions no longer have long-term consequences in the environment
- ► ⇒ actions still do impact immediate reward
- other observations can be ignored
- We discuss how to learn a policy in this setting



Blackboard:

Example

## Exploration vs. Exploitation

- Learning agents need to trade off two things
  - **Exploitation**: Maximise performance based on current knowledge
  - **Exploration**: Increase knowledge
- We need to gather information to make the best overall decisions
- ▶ The best long-term strategy may involve short-term sacrifices



Formalising the problem

### The Multi-Armed Bandit

- ▶ A multi-armed bandit is a set of distributions  $\{\mathcal{R}_a|a\in\mathcal{A}\}$
- $\triangleright$   $\mathcal{A}$  is a (known) set of actions (or "arms")
- $ightharpoonup \mathcal{R}_a$  is a distribution on rewards, given action a
- ▶ At each step t the agent selects an action  $A_t \in \mathcal{A}$
- ► The environment generates a reward  $R_t \sim \mathcal{R}_{A_t}$
- ► The goal is to maximise cumulative reward  $\sum_{i=1}^{t} R_i$
- ightharpoonup We do this by learning a **policy**: a distribution on  $\mathcal A$



## Values and Regret

► The action value for action *a* is the expected reward

$$q(a) = \mathbb{E}\left[R_t|A_t = a\right]$$

► The optimal value is

$$v_* = \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} q(a) = \max_{a} \mathbb{E} \left[ R_t \mid A_t = a \right]$$

**Regret** of an action *a* is

$$\Delta_a = v_* - q(a)$$

▶ The regret for the optimal action is zero



## Regret

► We want to minimise total regret:

$$L_t = \sum_{n=1}^t v_* - q(A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^t \Delta_{A_n}$$

- Maximise cumulative reward ≡ minimise total regret
- ► The summation spans over the full 'lifetime of learning'



















## Algorithms

- ► We will discuss several algorithms:
  - Greedy
  - ightharpoonup  $\epsilon$ -greedy
  - ► UCB
  - ► Thompson sampling
  - Policy gradients
- ▶ The first three all use action value estimates  $Q_t(a) \approx q(a)$



### **Action values**

► The action value for action *a* is the expected reward

$$q(a) = \mathbb{E}\left[R_t|A_t = a\right]$$

► A simple estimate is the average of the sampled rewards:

$$Q_t(a) = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{t} I(A_n = a) R_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{t} I(A_n = a)}$$

 $I(\cdot)$  is the **indicator** function: I(True) = 1 and I(False) = 0

► The **count** for action *a* is

$$N_t(a) = \sum_{n=1}^t \mathcal{I}(A_n = a)$$



### Action values

► This can also be updated incrementally:

$$Q_t(A_t) = Q_{t-1}(A_t) + \alpha_t \underbrace{\left(R_t - Q_{t-1}(A_t)\right)}_{\text{error}},$$
 
$$\forall a \neq A_t : Q_t(a) = Q_{t-1}(a)$$

with

$$\alpha_t = \frac{1}{N_t(A_t)}$$
 and  $N_t(A_t) = N_{t-1}(A_t) + 1$ ,

where  $N_0(a) = 0$ .

- We will later consider other step sizes  $\alpha$
- For instance, constant  $\alpha$  would lead to tracking, rather than averaging



Algorithms: greedy



## The greedy policy

- ► One of the simplest policies is **greedy**:
  - ► Select action with highest value:  $A_t = \operatorname{argmax} Q_t(a)$
  - Equivalently:  $\pi_t(a) = I(A_t = \operatorname{argmax} Q_t(a))$  (assuming no ties are possible)



Example:

Regret of the greedy policy



Algorithms:  $\epsilon$ -greedy



### $\epsilon$ -Greedy Algorithm

- Greedy can get stuck on a suboptimal action forever
  - ⇒ linear expected total regret
- ▶ The  $\epsilon$ -greedy algorithm:
  - With probability  $1 \epsilon$  select greedy action:  $a = \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q_t(a)$
  - ightharpoonup With probability  $\epsilon$  select a random action
  - **Equivalently:**

$$\pi_t(a) = \begin{cases} (1 - \epsilon) + \epsilon/|\mathcal{A}| & \text{if } Q_t(a) = \max_b Q_t(b) \\ \epsilon/|\mathcal{A}| & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- ightharpoonup  $\epsilon$ -greedy continues to explore
  - $\Rightarrow \epsilon\text{-greedy}$  with constant  $\epsilon$  has linear expected total regret



Algorithms: Policy gradients

### Policy search

- $\triangleright$  Can we learn policies  $\pi(a)$  directly, instead of learning values?
- ▶ For instance, define action preferences  $H_t(a)$  and a policy

$$\pi(a) = \frac{e^{H_t(a)}}{\sum_b e^{H_t(b)}}$$
 (softmax)

- ▶ The preferences are not values: they are just learnable policy parameters
- ► Goal: learn by optimising the preferences



## Policy gradients

- ▶ Idea: update policy parameters such that expected value increases
- ► We can use gradient ascent
- In the bandit case, we want to update:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha \nabla_\theta \mathbb{E}[R_t | \pi_{\theta_t}],$$

where  $\theta_t$  are the current policy parameters

Can we compute this gradient?



### Gradient bandits

Log-likelihood trick (also known as REINFORCE trick, Williams 1992):

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}[R_{t}|\pi_{\theta}] = \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{a} \pi_{\theta}(a) \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[R_{t}|A_{t} = a]}$$

$$= \sum_{a} q(a) \nabla_{\theta} \pi_{\theta}(a)$$

$$= \sum_{a} q(a) \frac{\pi_{\theta}(a)}{\pi_{\theta}(a)} \nabla_{\theta} \pi_{\theta}(a)$$

$$= \sum_{a} \pi_{\theta}(a) q(a) \frac{\nabla_{\theta} \pi_{\theta}(a)}{\pi_{\theta}(a)}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t} \frac{\nabla_{\theta} \pi_{\theta}(A_{t})}{\pi_{\theta}(A_{t})}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(A_{t})\right]$$



### **Gradient bandits**

Log-likelihood trick (also known as REINFORCE trick, Williams 1992):

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}[R_t | \theta] = \mathbb{E}\left[R_t \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(A_t)\right]$$

- We can sample this!
- So

$$\theta = \theta + \alpha R_t \nabla_\theta \log \pi_\theta(A_t),$$

this is stochastic gradient ascent on the (true) value of the policy

► Can use sampled rewards — does not need value estimates



### **Gradient bandits**

For soft max:

$$H_{t+1}(a) = H_t(a) + \alpha R_t \frac{\partial \log \pi_t(A_t)}{\partial H_t(a)}$$
$$= H_t(a) + \alpha R_t (I(a = A_t) - \pi_t(a))$$

ightharpoonup

$$H_{t+1}(A_t) = H_t(A_t) + \alpha R_t(1 - \pi_t(A_t))$$
  

$$H_{t+1}(a) = H_t(a) - \alpha R_t \pi_t(a)$$
 if  $a \neq A_t$ 

Preferences for actions with higher rewards increase more (or decrease less), making them more likely to be selected again



Theory: what is possible?

### How well can we do?

### Theorem (Lai and Robbins)

Asymptotic total regret is at least logarithmic in number of steps

$$\lim_{t\to\infty} L_t \ge \log t \sum_{a|\Delta_a>0} \frac{\Delta_a}{KL(\mathcal{R}_a||\mathcal{R}_{a*})}$$

(Note:  $KL(\mathcal{R}_a||\mathcal{R}_{a*}) \propto \Delta_a^2$ )

- ► Note that regret grows at least logarithmically
- ► That's still a whole lot better than linear growth! Can we get it in practice?
- ► Are there algorithms for which the **upper bound** is logarithmic as well?



## **Counting Regret**

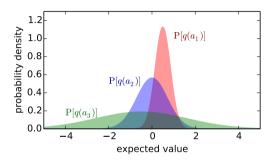
- ightharpoonup Recall  $\Delta_a = v_* q(a)$
- ▶ Total regret depends on action regrets  $\Delta_a$  and action counts

$$L_t = \sum_{n=1}^t \Delta_{A_n} = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} N_t(a)\Delta$$

▶ A good algorithm ensures small counts for large action regrets

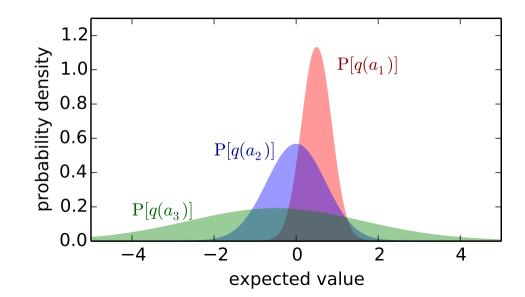




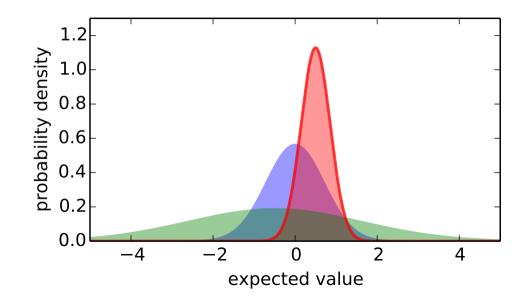


- ▶ Which action should we pick?
- More uncertainty about its value: more important to explore that action

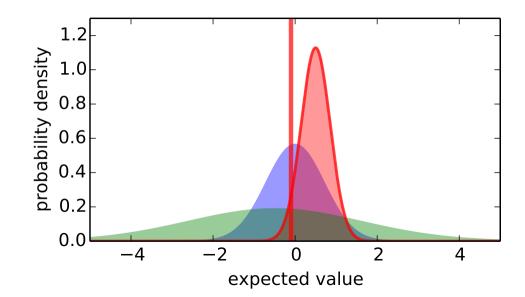




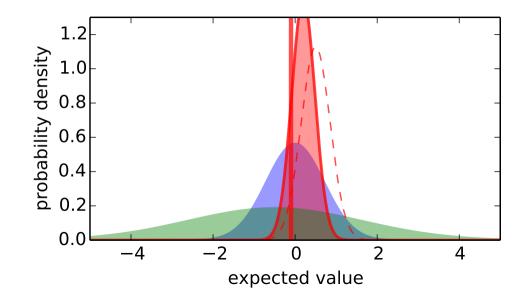




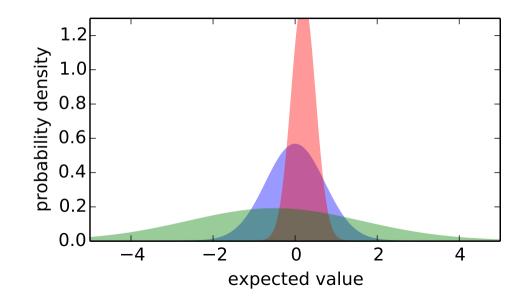






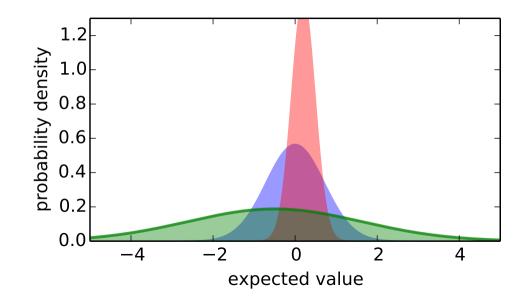






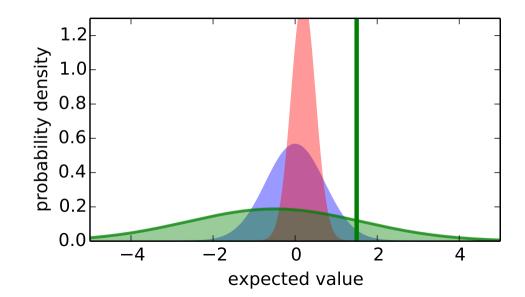


# Optimism in the Face of Uncertainty



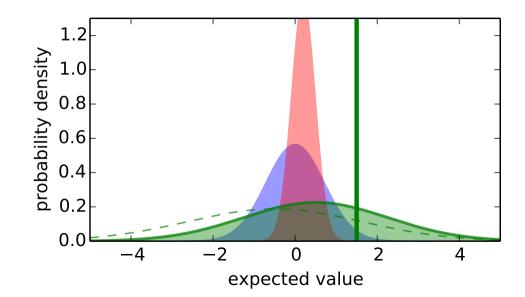


# Optimism in the Face of Uncertainty





# Optimism in the Face of Uncertainty





















## **Upper Confidence Bounds**

- Estimate an upper confidence  $U_t(a)$  for each action value, such that  $q(a) \le Q_t(a) + U_t(a)$  with high probability
- Select action maximizing upper confidence bound (UCB)

$$a_t = \underset{a \in \mathcal{A}}{\operatorname{argmax}} Q_t(a) + U_t(a)$$

- ▶ The uncertainty should depend on the number of times  $N_t(a)$  action a has been selected
  - ► Small  $N_t(a) \Rightarrow$  large  $U_t(a)$  (estimated value is uncertain)
  - ► Large  $N_t(a)$   $\Rightarrow$  small  $U_t(a)$  (estimated value is accurate)
- ► Then *a* is only selected if either...
  - $ightharpoonup ... Q_t(a)$  is large (=good action), or
  - $ightharpoonup ... U_t(a)$  is large (=high uncertainty) (or both)
- Can we derive an optimal bound?



Theory: the optimality of UCB

# Hoeffding's Inequality

### Theorem (Hoeffding's Inequality)

Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be i.i.d. random variables in [0,1] with true mean  $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$ , and let  $\overline{X}_t = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  be the sample mean. Then

$$\rho\left(\overline{X}_n + u \le \mu\right) \le e^{-2nu^2}$$

- We can apply Hoeffding's Inequality to bandits with bounded rewards
- ▶ If  $R_t \in [0, 1]$ , then

$$p(Q_t(a) + U_t(a) \le q(a)) \le e^{-2N_t(a)U_t(a)^2}$$

By symmetry, we can also flip it around

$$p(Q_t(a) - U_t(a) \ge q(a)) \le e^{-2N_t(a)U_t(a)^2}$$



# Calculating Upper Confidence Bounds

We can pick a maximal desired probability p that the true value exceeds an upper bound and solve for this bound  $U_t(a)$ 

$$e^{-2N_t(a)U_t(a)^2} = p$$

$$\Longrightarrow U_t(a) = \sqrt{\frac{-\log p}{2N_t(a)}}$$

We then know the probability that this happens is smaller than p

Idea: reduce p as we observe more rewards, e.g., p = 1/t

$$U_t(a) = \sqrt{\frac{\log t}{2N_t(a)}}$$

This ensures that we always keep exploring, but not too much



### **UCB**

UCB:

$$a_t = \underset{a \in \mathcal{A}}{\operatorname{argmax}} Q_t(a) + c \sqrt{\frac{\log t}{N_t(a)}}$$

- ► Intuition:
  - If  $\Delta_a$  is large, then  $N_t(a)$  is small, because  $Q_t(a)$  is likely to be small
  - ▶ So either  $\Delta_a$  is small or  $N_t(a)$  is small
  - ▶ In fact, we can prove  $\Delta_a N_t(a) \leq O(\log t)$ , for all a



### **UCB**

► UCB:

$$a_t = \underset{a \in \mathcal{A}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ Q_t(a) + c \sqrt{\frac{\log t}{N_t(a)}}$$

where *c* is a hyper-parameter

### Theorem (Auer et al., 2002)

UCB with  $c = \sqrt{2}$  achieves logarithmic expected total regret

$$L_t \le 8 \sum_{a|\Delta_a>0} \frac{\log t}{\Delta_a} + O(\sum_a \Delta_a), \quad \forall t$$



Blackboard:

UCB derivation



Bayesian approaches

### **Bayesian Bandits**

- ▶ We could adopt Bayesian approach and model distributions over values  $p(q(a) \mid \theta_t)$
- ▶ This is interpreted as our **belief** that, e.g., q(a) = x for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\triangleright$  E.g.,  $\theta_t$  could contain the means and variances of Gaussian belief distributions
- Allows us to inject rich prior knowledge  $\theta_0$
- We can then use posterior belief to guide exploration



## Bayesian Bandits: Example

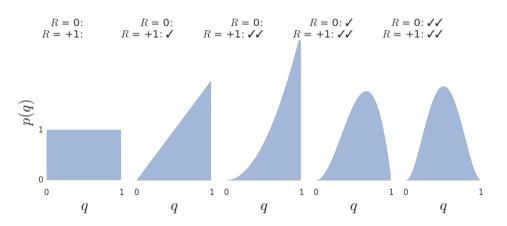
- Consider bandits with Bernoulli reward distribution: rewards are 0 or +1
- For each action, the prior could be a uniform distribution on [0, 1]
- This means we think each value in [0, 1] is equally likely
- The posterior is a Beta distribution Beta( $x_a, y_a$ ) with initial parameters  $x_a = 1$  and  $y_a = 1$ for each action a
- Updating the posterior:

  - $x_{A_t} \leftarrow x_{A_t} + 1 \text{ when } R_t = 0$   $y_{A_t} \leftarrow y_{A_t} + 1 \text{ when } R_t = 1$



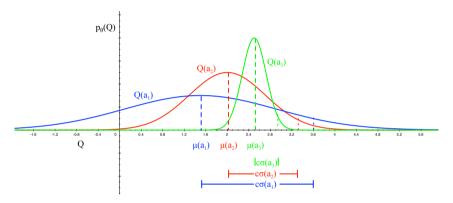
# Bayesian Bandits: Example

Suppose:  $R_1 = +1$ ,  $R_2 = +1$ ,  $R_3 = 0$ ,  $R_4 = 0$ 





### Bayesian Bandits with Upper Confidence Bounds



- ▶ We can estimate upper confidences from the posterior
  - e.g.,  $U_t(a) = c\sigma_t(a)$  where  $\sigma(a)$  is std dev of  $p_t(q(a))$
- ► Then, pick an action that maximises  $Q_t(a) + c\sigma(a)$



Algorithms: Thompson sampling

## **Probability Matching**

► A different option is to use **probability matching**: Select action *a* according to the probability (belief) that *a* is optimal

$$\pi_t(a) = p\left(q(a) = \max_{a'} q(a') \mid \mathcal{H}_{t-1}\right)$$

- Probability matching is optimistic in the face of uncertainty:
   Actions have higher probability when either the estimated value is high, or the uncertainty is high
- $\blacktriangleright$  Can be difficult to compute  $\pi(a)$  analytically from posterior (but can be done numerically)



## Thompson Sampling

- Thompson sampling (Thompson 1933):
  - ► Sample  $Q_t(a) \sim p_t(q(a)), \forall a$
  - Select action maximising sample,  $A_t = \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q_t(a)$
- ► Thompson sampling is sample-based probability matching

$$\pi_t(a) = \mathbb{E}\left[I(Q_t(a) = \max_{a'} Q_t(a'))\right]$$
$$= p\left(q(a) = \max_{a'} q(a')\right)$$

For Bernoulli bandits, Thompson sampling achieves Lai and Robbins lower bound on regret, and therefore is optimal



Planning to explore

### **Information State Space**

- We have viewed bandits as one-step decision-making problems
- Can also view as sequential decision-making problems
- $\triangleright$  Each step the agent updates state  $S_t$  to summarise the past
- Each action  $A_t$  causes a transition to a new information state  $S_{t+1}$  (by adding information), with probability  $p(S_{t+1} \mid A_t, S_t)$
- We now have a Markov decision problem
- The state is fully internal to the agent
- ▶ State transitions are random due to rewards & actions
- ▶ Even in bandits actions affect the future after all, via learning



### Example: Bernoulli Bandits

Consider a Bernoulli bandit, such that

$$p(R_t = 1 \mid A_t = a) = \mu_a$$
  
 $p(R_t = 0 \mid A_t = a) = 1 - \mu_a$ 

- E.g., win or lose a game with probability  $\mu_a$
- Want to find which arm has the highest  $\mu_a$
- ▶ The information state is  $I = (\alpha, \beta)$ 
  - $ightharpoonup \alpha_a$  counts the pulls of arm a where reward was 0
  - $\triangleright$   $\beta_a$  counts the pulls of arm a where reward was 1



## Solving Information State Space Bandits

- ▶ We formulated the bandit as an infinite MDP over information states
- This can be solved by reinforcement learning
- E.g., learn a Bayesian reward distribution, plan into the future
- This is known as Bayes-adaptive RL: optimally trades off exploration with respect to the prior distribution
- Can be extended to full RL, by also learning a transition model
- Can be unwieldy... unclear how to scale effectively



Example

End of lecture